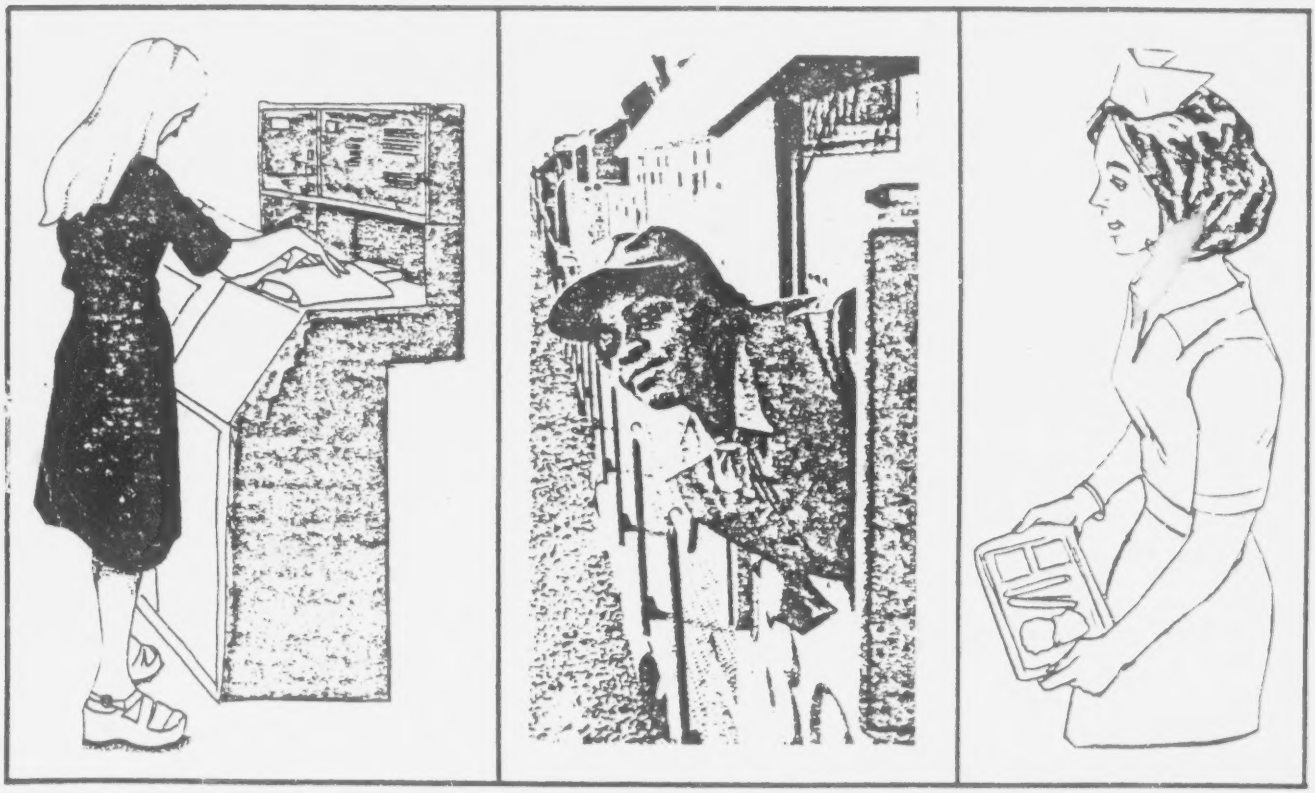
WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE

Washington, D.C. and Metropolitan Area 1979



JOB SERVICE "HELPING PEOPLE HELP THEMSELVES"

Department of Employment Services
Ivanhoe Donaldson, Acting Director

Government of the
District of Columbia
Marion S. Barry, Jr., Mayor
February 1981

IMPORTANT EVENTS IN AMERICAN LABOR HISTORY AS THEY RELATE TO WOMEN: 1778-1977

1825 - The United Tailoresses of New York, a trade union organization for women only, was formed in New York City.

1852 - The Typographical Union, the first national organization of workers to endure to the present day, was formed. The first law limiting working hours of women to 10 hours a day was passed in Ohio.

1912 - Massachusetts adopted the first minimum wage act for women and minors.

1920 - The Women's Bureau was established in the Department of Labor by an Act of Congress.

1933 - Frances Perkins became Secretary of Labor, the first woman named to the Cabinet.

1963 - The Equal Pay Act of 1963 was signed by the President on June 10. This act prohibited wage differentials based on sex for workers covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act.

1964 - The Civil Rights Act of 1964 was signed by the President on July 2, to become effective a year later. Title VII - Equal Employment Opportunity - barred discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin in hiring apprenticeship, compensation, and terms, conditi ns, or privileges of employment, and union membership. An Equal Employ t Opportunity Commission was charged with investigating and adjudicating complaints under this title.

1973 - About 3,000 women unionists from 58 labor organizations assembled in Chicago in late March to establish the Coalition of Labor Union Women. The Coalition was dedicated to promoting equal rights and better wages and working conditions for women workers. The organization was to work toward increasing union membership of women, greater participation by women in union affairs and policymaking, and favorable legislation affecting women workers.

1977 - Patricia Roberts Harris became Secretary of Housing and Urban Development, the first black woman named to the Cabinet.

P R E F A C E

Women in the Labor Force is a "special subject" Report on the labor status of women in the Washington, D.C. and the Washington Metropolitan Area labor market. It focuses on labor force participation, occupational distribution, characteristic profiles, race and nontraditional jobs of women among other things. It is one of a series of labor market information analytical studies.

It is hoped that this information will be of use to planners, legislators, administrators and community groups in decision-making and policy formulation that will lead to improvements in the labor force status of women in this area.

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WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE

(Calendar Year 1979)

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BACKGROUND

The national labor force participation rate among women has been growing rapidly over the last three decades.

> The rapid increase in the number of women working or looking for work in the paid labor market has been one of the most important developments in the United States economy since World War II. The work place is no longer a man's world. Over the past three decades, six out of every ten additions to the labor force have been female. In 1947, one-third of the working-age female population was in the labor force. Today, one-half is there. The feminization of the labor market has been greeted with enthusiasm by those who see it as a liberating step for women or as a way of increasing the productive capacity of the nation. Others see it as a threat to traditional values or as a needless burden on a labor market already unable to provide enough jobs.
>
> No matter how one views this development, it is clear that it has important consequences for the economy and for society in general. It should be clear that the effects are more likely to be favorable if the growth in the labor force is anticipated and planned for. 1/

This study on women in the labor force in the District of Columbia, the Washington Metropolitan Area, and the Nation will focus on the following components:

- Labor Force Participation
- Occupational Distribution
- Characteristic Profile of Employment Service Applicants
- Nonwhite Women
- Federal Employment
- Male-Female Earnings Gap
- Part-Time Employment
- Nontraditional Jobs
- Wider Opportunities for Women
- Summary

1/ Ralph E. Smith, The Subtle Revolution - Women At Work, (The Urban Institute 1979), pp 1-3.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

There were 174 thousand women in the Civilian Labor Force in the District of Columbia in 1970. Of this total, 166 thousand were employed, 8 thousand were unemployed and the unemployment rate was 4.5 percent. At the same time in the Washington Metropolitan Area, 522 thousand women were in the labor force--505 thousand were employed, 17 thousand were unemployed and the unemployment rate was 3.3 percent. Nationally, there were 31.5 million women in the labor force in 1970 and of that total, 29.7 million were employed, 1.9 million were unemployed and the unemployment rate was 5.9 percent.

Since 1970, the number of women participants in the labor force in the Washington Metropolitan Area has risen from 522 thousand to 709 thousand in 1979. The rate of increase for the Nation has also been steadily rising. It was 34.5 million in 1973 compared to 38.4 million in 1976 and 43.4 million in 1979. Employment, unemployment, and the unemployment rate have been rising steadily for the Washington Metropolitan Area and the Nation. The number employed in the Washington Metropolitan Area in the 1970s rose from 505 thousand in 1970 to 674 thousand in 1979, a 33 percent increase. For the Nation, the rate of increase over the ten year span was almost equal at 36 percent. This sharp increase in employment stems from the increasing need of women to work, to serve as a breadwinner and head of household, and to meet the ever accelerating high cost of living.

Unemployment doubled between 1970 and 1979, up from 17 to 37 thousand, in the Washington Metropolitan Area and rose by 59 percent in the Nation, up from 1.9 million in 1970 to 2.9 million in 1979. The unemployment rate rose from 3.3 percent in 1970 for the Washington Metropolitan Area to 5.1 percent in 1979. Nationally, the rate was 5.9 percent in 1970 compared to 6.8 percent in 1979.

Despite sharp increases in the number of women in the labor force both Nationally and in the Washington Metropolitan Area, in the District of Columbia, the civilian labor force and employment have been declining over the past decade while unemployment and the unemployment rate have been rising. There are several possible reasons for this decrease in the number of District of Columbia women in the labor force. First, housekeeping and childrearing often keep women out of the labor force. Second, some people have become discouraged with the job market and feel no employment is available for them. Third, some people possess few if any skills and in the labor market are considered unemployable. Fourth, despite the fact that the District of Columbia is over three-fourths nonwhite, the spectre of discrimination is not erased as it relates to age, race, and sex. Fifth, over the past decade there has been a migration to the suburbs by District residents.

In 1970, the participation rate of women in the labor force was 59.8 percent in the District of Columbia, and 51.5 percent in the Washington Metropolitan Area. In 1979, the District of Columbia participation rate was 60.3 percent while for the Washington Metropolitan Area it was 60.1 percent. These rates are higher than that for women on a National level who had a labor force participation rate of 51.0 percent in 1979. All three rates have grown over the past decade. Nationally, the participation rate of women in the labor force is expected to grow through the next decade. A participation rate of about 55 percent in 1990 for females age sixteen and over is projected. This would mean that 52 million women would be working or looking for work--over 12 million more than were in the labor force in 1977. 2/

2/ Ibid., p. 13-16

There are no labor force participation rate projections for the District of Columbia and the Washington Metropolitan Area. However, based on the experiences of the past decade an increase of about 1.0 percent to 1.5 percent per year can be expected.

TABLE I

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, WASHINGTON METROPOLITAN AREA AND UNITED STATES

1970 - 1979

Year	District of Columbia	Washington Metropolitan Area	United States
1970	59.8 %	51.5 %	43.3 %
1971	60.5 %	50.6 %	43.3 %
1972	59.2 %	52.5 %	43.9 %
1973	58.9 %	55.2 %	44.7 %
1974	55.3 %	N/A	45.6 %
1975	N/A	55.0 %	46.3 %
1976	58.2 %	56.9 %	47.3 %
1977	56.3 %	57.7 %	48.4 %
1978	60.1 %	59.1 %	50.0 %
1979	60.3 %	60.1 %	51.0 %

Source: Department of Employment Services, Office of Management Information and Data Systems, Division of Labor Market Information, Research and Analysis. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Division of Employment and Unemployment Analysis.

TABLE II

LABOR FORCE CHARACTERISTICS FOR WOMEN
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, WASHINGTON METROPOLITAN AREA AND UNITED STATES
1970 - 1979
(Numbers in Thousands)

District of Columbia

Year	Labor Force	Employment	Unemployment	Unemployment Rate
1970	174	166	8	4.5 %
1971	179	172	7	3.7 %
1972	177	165	12	6.7 %
1973	179	166	13	7.2 %
1974	168	158	10	6.0 %
1975	170	160	10	6.1 %
1976	164	152	12	7.1 %
1977	157	145	12	7.8 %
1978	164	152	12	7.5 %
1979	158	146	12	7.7 %

Washington Metropolitan Area

Year	Labor Force	Employment	Unemployment	Unemployment Rate
1970	522	505	17	3.3 %
1971	533	519	14	2.7 %
1972	563	542	21	3.7 %
1973	603	571	32	5.4 %
1974	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
1975	615	582	33	5.4 %
1976	628	597	31	4.9 %
1977	674	640	34	5.1 %
1978	689	653	36	5.2 %
1979	711	674	37	5.1 %

United States

Year	Labor Force	Employment	Unemployment	Unemployment Rate
1970	31,520	29,667	1,853	5.9 %
1971	32,092	29,875	2,217	6.9 %
1972	33,277	31,072	2,205	6.6 %
1973	34,510	32,446	2,064	6.0 %
1974	35,825	33,417	2,408	6.7 %
1975	36,998	33,553	3,445	9.3 %
1976	38,415	35,095	3,320	8.6 %
1977	39,952	36,685	3,267	8.2 %
1978	41,878	38,882	2,996	7.2 %
1979	43,391	40,446	2,945	6.8 %

Source: Department of Employment Services, Office of Management Information and Data Systems, Division of Labor Market Information, Research and Analysis. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Division of Employment and Unemployment Analysis.

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION

Employed women in the District of Columbia, the Washington Metropolitan Area, and the United State hold many of the traditional jobs available to women--mainly clerical, service, and semi-professional. (See chart A.) Women locally and nationally are heavily eemployed in stereotypically female occupations such as counselors, librarians, teachers, nurses, social workers, clerical workers and service workers.

Women in white collar occupations in the Washington Metropolitan Area are at the top (81.7%) in percentage of total employment among the three geographic areas considered in this study. The District of Columbia follows in a fairly close second place. In the Washington Metropolitan Area and in the District of Columbia, the Federal government employs a large number of women falling in the white collar category. This can be cited as the primary reason for the large gap between white collar workers in the Washington Metropolitan Area including the District of Columbia, and the Nation. In blue collar occupations, women in the United States by far outstrip the District of Columbia and the Washington Metropolitan Area. However, in the Service occupations, the United States and the District of Columbia are almost on par. (Table III will detail these statistics.)

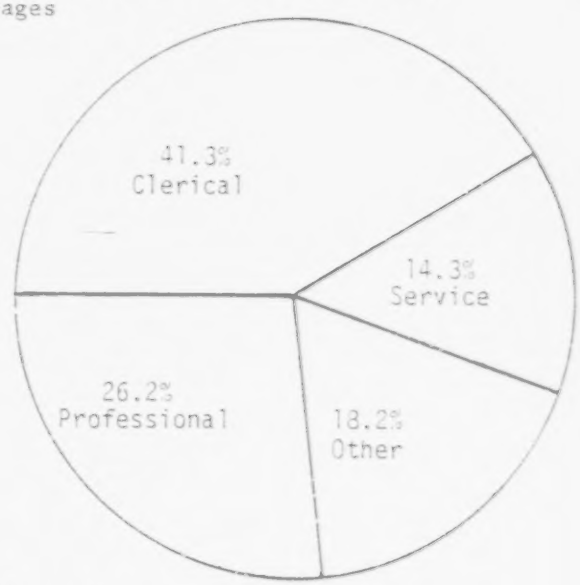
The occupational distribution of females versus males in the Washington Metropolitan Area labor force shows that of the total men employed, 62.7 percent are in white collar jobs compared to 81.7 percent for females. Males outrank females in professional, technical, and managerial office positions. Women outrank men in clerical and sales positions. Of the blue collar jobs men outrank women in all categories and in some as much as eight-to-one.

Despite the fact that the craft jobs and nonfarm labor positions have traditionally been held by males because of the physical requirements, there still exists certain amount of sexual discrimination in these blue collar jobs.

CHART A

OCCUPATIONAL EMPLOYMENT PROFILE OF FEMALES
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, WASHINGTON METROPOLITAN AREA, AND THE UNITED STATES
1979 Annual Averages

District of Columbia



Washington Metropolitan Area

United States

Source: Department of Employment Services, Office of Management Information and Data Systems, Division of Labor Market Information, Research and Analysis. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Division of Employment and Unemployment Analysis.

Nationally, women outrank men as white collar workers 64.4 percent to 41.2 percent. The reason for this large gap is that women are employed primarily as clerical workers (35.0 percent) compared to males at (6.0 Percent). As expected, among blue collar workers men outrank women 46.3 percent to 14.6 percent. The reason for this are diverse.

TABLE III

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED WOMEN
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, WASHINGTON METROPOLITAN AREA, AND THE UNITED STATES
1979 Annual Averages
(Numbers in Thousands)

	District of Columbia		Washington Metropolitan Area		United States	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percen
TOTAL EMPLOYMENT	146	100.0	674	100.0	40,445	100.0
White Collar	113	77.2	551	81.7	26,036	64.4
Professional, Technical, Etc.	37	25.6	177	26.2	6,519	16.1
Managerial, Office, Etc.	12	8.4	57	8.4	2,586	6.4
Sales Workers	5	3.4	39	5.8	2,779	6.9
Clerical Workers	58	39.8	278	41.3	14,152	35.0
Blue Collar	5	3.7	27	3.9	5,911	14.6
Craftsman	1	.6	6	.9	737	1.8
Operatives, Except Transport	3	2.1	12	1.7	4,353	10.8
Transport Equipment Operatives	1	.5	5	.7	294	.7
Laborers	1	.5	5	.7	527	1.3
Service Workers	28	19.0	96	14.3	8,011	19.8
Farm Workers	0	0	*	.1	487	1.2

* Less than 1,000 workers. (Totals may not add due to rounding.)

Source: Department of Employment Services, Office of Management Information and Data Systems, Division of Labor Market Information, Research and Analysis. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Division of Employment and Unemployment Analysis.

CHARACTERISTIC PROFILE OF FEMALE APPLICANTS IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

During Calendar Year 1979, there was a total of 16,224 female applicants placed in jobs by the District of Columbia Employment Service. Overall, the profile shows that the largest number of these applicants were 15-19 years of age, black, urbanized, and had 8-11 years of school. The largest number of applicants are placed in jobs paying $2.65-$2.99 per hour which puts them in the minimum wage category and they are most likely to be Service Workers. A substantital number was classified as economically disadvantaged. The overall ratio of female applicants available to unfilled job openings was 1.23. Tables IV and V detail further information on the characteristics of females registered by the District of Columbia Employment Service.

TABLE IV

PLACEMENT OF FEMALE INDIVIDUALS BY THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA
1979

Characteristics Of Applicants	Total Applicants Placed	Nature of Placement	
		Nonagricultural	Agricultur
Age	16,224	16,221	3
15 and Under	3,630	3,629	1
16-17	4,958	4,957	1
18-19	2,711	2,711	0
20-21	1,263	1,263	0
22-24	946	945	1
25-29	1,074	1,074	0
30-34	591	591	0
35-39	382	382	0
40-44	230	230	0
45-54	281	281	0
55-64	115	115	0
65 and Over	43	43	0
Highest School Grade	16,224	16,221	3
0-7	1,666	1,666	0
8-11	10,683	10,680	3
12	2,524	2,524	0
Over 12	1,351	1,351	0
Residence	16,224	16,221	3
Urban	16,218	16,215	3
Rural	6	6	0
Race/Ethnic	16,224	16,221	3
White	221	221	0
Black	15,785	15,782	3
Hispanic	179	179	0
Other	39	39	0
Veteran	129	129	0
Handicapped	175	175	0
Econ. Disadvantaged	9,291	9,288	3
Food Stamp Work Reg.	110	110	0
Welfare	4,825	4,825	0
Seasonal Farmworkers	3	3	0

Source: Employment Service Automated Reporting System (ESARS), Table D03 "Female - Placement and Referral of Individuals" Department of Employment Services, December 1978, September 1979 and December 1979.

TABLE V

COMPARISON OF UNFILLED OPENINGS WITH FEMALE APPLICANTS IN THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE ACTIVE FILE

District of Columbia
1979

Occupational Code	Active Female File	Unfilled Job Openings	Active Female/Job Opening Ratio
Total	21,195	17,204	1.23
Professional, Technical, & Managerial	2,450	5,039	0.49
Clerical & Sales	6,231	7,359	0.85
Service	5,794	551	10.52
Agricultural, Fishery, Forestry & Related Occupations	11	333	0.03
Processing	0	24	0.00
Machine Trades	18	395	0.05
Bench Work	151	100	1.51
Structural Work	37	0	0.00
Miscellaneous	348	1,369	0.25

Note: Detail may not add to totals because all applicants are not assigned occupational codes, but all are reflected in the total.

Source: Employment Service Automated Reporting System (ESARS), Table 96 "Applicants and Nonagricultural Job Openings by Occupations" and Table A07 "Job Openings Received and Filled by Occupations and Specified Types." Department of Employment Services, December 1978, September 1979 and December 1979.

NONWHITE WOMEN

The labor force participation rate of nonwhite women has remained steady in recent years, while the rate of white women, although still below that of nonwhites, has risen considerably. In 1979, there were 5.9 million nonwhite women 16 years of age and over in the civilian labor force nationally.

There are numerous reasons for nonwhite women being in the labor force. One of the primary reasons is that nowhite women more than any other group are compelled by "need" to work. The largest percentage of households headed by women are headed by nonwhite women. The largest percentage of working mothers are also nonwhite women. Women receiving the lowest earnings are also nonwhite women. Although there have been some attempts made nationally to put nonwhite women in professional, technical, and managerial jobs over the past decade, the number of these jobs held by nonwhite women is very small in proportion to the remaining population.

The nonwhite female versus the white female is an interesting phenomenon. In the District of Columbia, the Washington Metropolitan Area, and the Nation, white females show a marked difference compared to nonwhite females in every major labor force grouping. (See Table VI.)

The overall picture shows that nonwhite females have a higher labor force participation rate and that their unemployment rate is more than double that of white female counterparts. Much of this is due to the fact that white females are much better educated, possess many more skills, and are less likely to be discriminated against than are nonwhite females.

TABLE VI

WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE BY RACE
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, WASHINGTON METROPOLITAN AREA, AND THE UNITED STATES
(Numbers in Thousands)
1979 Annual Averages

District of Columbia

	Population	Labor Force		Employment	Unemployment	
		Number	Participation Rate		Number	Rate
Nonwhite	179	109	61%	99	10	9.4%
White	83	49	59%	47	2	3.9%
Total	262	158	60%	146	12	7.7%

Washington Metropolitan Area

	Population	Labor Force		Employment	Unemployment	
		Number	Participation Rate		Number	Rate
Nonwhite	320	216	68%	198	18	8.2%
White	822	494	60%	475	19	3.8%
Total	1,142	710	62%	674	37	5.1%

United States

	Population	Labor Force		Employment	Unemployment	
		Number	Participation Rate		Number	Rate
Nonwhite	10,963	5,863	53%	5,141	722	12.3%
White	74,120	37,528	51%	35,305	2,224	5.9%
Total	85,083	43,391	51%	40,446	2,945	6.8%

Note: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

Source: Department of Employment Services, Office of Management Information and Data Systems, Division of Labor Market Information, Research and Analysis.
U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Division of Employment and Unemployment Analysis.

The table below shows the percent distribution of women in the civilian labor force by age and race in the District of Columbia for 1979. It is interesting to note that while 69 percent of the female labor force is nonwhite, the percent distribution among the different age groups of women is very similar for both races and all women.

TABLE VII

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN THE CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE,
BY AGE AND RACE
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA
1979 Annual Averages

Age	Total	Nonwhite	White
Total, 16 years and over	100.0	100.0	100.0
16-17 Years	2.0	2.0	0.0
18-19 Years	3.0	4.0	2.0
20-24 Years	12.0	13.0	10.0
25-44 Years	54.0	51.0	60.0
45-64 Years	25.0	27.0	24.0
65 Years and Over	4.0	3.0	4.0

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Division of Employment Structure and Trends.

In the 1970's, Black women in the Nation made improvements in the areas of health, education, occupational upgrading, and in achieving incomes nearly equal to those of White women. Nevertheless, unemployment rates for Black women have remained high, and in 1979, Black women still fell below White women in most socioeconomic areas. Black women are more likely than White women to be unemployed, to be overrepresented in low-paying jobs, to be increasingly assuming the role of head of household with children to support, and to account for a larger proportion of the poor in comparison to White women.

Traditionally, the labor force participation rate for Black women has been greater than that for White women. In the 1970's, however, the labor force participation rate of White women has been approaching that of Black women.

Unemployment is more prevalent among Black women than among White women. In 1979, nationally, 12.3 percent of Black women in the labor force was unemployed, compared to 5.9 percent of White women.

Since 1970, there have been some changes in the occupational distribution of Black women. A larger proportion of employed Black women held professional and clerical jobs in 1979 than at the beginning of the decade; the proportion of White women in these jobs remained about the same. However, in 1979, the proportion of Black women employed in these positions was still below that of their White counterparts.

The difference in earnings between Black women and White women who were year-round, full-time workers has narrowed significantly since 1970. Although the median income of Black women who worked year-round, full-time was approaching parity with their White counterparts during the 1970's, a similar situation did not develop for Black women relative to Black men, and certainly not relative to White men.

There are very few American Indian women in the Washington Metropolitan Area, and there is very little information on this group of women. Nationally Indian women have less education and are more likely to be unemployed than all other women in the total population.

The Asian group of nonwhite women includes Japanese, Chinese, and Filipino. The largest Asian group in the Washington Metropolitan Area is the Chinese followed by Japanese and Filipino.

Asian women are more urbanized than other women. The labor force participation rate is very high among Asian women. Chinese and Japanese are less likely to be unemployed. Many Asian women are employed in Professional and Technical jobs, particularly Chinese and Filipino. Chinese women are more likely to be employed in Operative positions than are Japanese and Filipino women.

Of all nonwhite women, American Indians, Chinese and Filipino women are much more likely to be never married than any other nonwhite women. 3/

3/ A Statistical Portrait of Women in the United States: 1978, (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of The Census 1980), pp. 93-95 and 119-121, passim.

WOMEN IN FEDERAL EMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

Although the Federal government professes to be an equal opportunity employer, it is clear from the table below that women are disproportionately employed at the bottom end of the scale. More than three-fourths of the jobs in classifications 1 through 3 (paying $6,561 to $8,366) in 1977 were held by women. Women held on an average of 66.5 percent of jobs Grade GS-8 and below. In Grades 9 through Grades 12, women held approximately one-fourth of the jobs. In contrast, women held around 4 percent of jobs in classifications 14 through 18 (paying more than ($32,000). The only GS Grade where women almost equal men is at the GS-8 level, and almost 100 percent of all jobs at this level and below are clerical positions. Similar patterns are characteristic of the distribution of women in the job hierarchies of large private corporations. 4/

TABLE VIII

EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN THE
FEDERAL GOVERNMENT CIVIL SERVICE SYSTEM
(Full-Time, White-Collar Employees of Federal Government Agencies as of November 30, 1977)

General Schedule (GS) Grade	Salary	Number Women Employed	Women as a Percentage of Total Employed
Total GS Employees	-	615,342	43.1
1	$ 6,561	1,277	65.7
2	7,422	15,818	74.1
3	8,366	73,187	77.5
4	9,391	134,602	77.5
5	10,507	126,060	68.1
6	11,712	60,560	69.6
7	13,014	64,631	49.4
8	14,414	16,374	50.3
9	15,920	54,455	35.1
10	17,532	8,547	32.4
11	19,263	30,621	19.4
12	23,087	16,997	11.1
13	27,453	7,670	6.8
14	32,442	2,878	4.9
15	38,160	1,435	4.5
16	44,756	159	3.4
17	47,500	55	3.2
18	47,500	16	3.7

Note: The salary rate shown is basic pay for employees in step 1 of the grade as of October 1978.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission, Equal Employment Opportunity Statistics (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978). p.2

4/ Ralph E. Smith, The Subtle Revolution - Women At Work, (The Urban Institute 1979), pp. 39-40, passim.

THE MALE-FEMALE EARNINGS GAP IN THE UNITED STATES

Women hold more than 2 out of 5 jobs in the civilian labor force in the Nation, but the average pay of those who work full-time the year-round is only about three-fifths of the average for men full-time year-round workers.

A great deal of the pay differential results from the fact that women have traditionally had access largely to low-paying jobs, have often been paid less than men were paid for the same work, and have had limited opportunities. Now written into law, and affirmed by numerous court cases, is the provision that in the labor market men and women stand equal in opportunity for hiring, for pay when work is equal or substantially equal, for advancement on the job, and for retirement benefits.

Although women have made gains toward equality with men in several areas, differences between the incomes of women and men remain substantial. Part of the income differential is attributable to differences in such factors as annual work experience, educational attainment, occupational distribution, industry of employment, and extent of lifetime work experience. However, discrimination in hiring, promotions, hours of work, and pay cannot be ruled out as contributing to the differential.

Simply stated, the earnings gap amounts to this: Fully employed women earn only about $6.00 for every $10.00 earned by fully employed men, and the gap has widened somewhat recently, even in the midst of feminist activity. In 1955, fully employed women earned 64 percent of what men earned, and in 1972 they earned only 58 percent, median earnings in 1972 being $10,202 for men and $5,903 for women. Morever, in that year, only 11 percent of fully employed women, but 51 percent of men earned $10,000 or over. 5/

5/ Ibid., pp 32-36, passim.

The most recent data on earnings for the District of Columbia are for calendar year 1975. There are no data available for the Washington Metropolitan Area as it relates to earnings. The data are for full-time year-round workers only.

In 1975, for all women the average annual income was $9,652 compared to $12,298 for all men. College graduates fair much better in the labor market than nongraduates as far as earnings are concerned. Their earnings are approximately 36 1/2 percent higher. In 1975, women college graduates earned $14,637 per year while their male counterparts earned $20,287 per year. In total, women who are noncollege graduates earn the less amount of money, followed by men who are noncollege graduates, and women college graduates are the second highest earner and men college graduates are the highest earners. Men who are college graduates earn 28 percent more than women college graduates. The primary reasons for this appears to be discrimination and lack of experience.

The breakdown by race shows that for White women the average income in 1975 was $12,705 compared to $8,896 for Black women. This represents a 30 percent income difference between White women and Black women. The average income for White men was $18,660 compared to $10,921 for Black men. White men outearned Black men by 41 percent in 1975. White women outearned Black men by 14 percent, and White women outearned Black women by 30 percent. The Black men outearned the Black women by 19 percent in 1975. In the average two worker household in the District of Columbia, the White family's income in 1975 was $31,365 while the Black family's income was $19,817, a 37 percent difference. Much of this earnings gap by race is due to discrimination, lack of education and lack of skills on the part of Blacks. Black women are at the bottom of the heap for earnings, education, experience, and skills. 6/

6/ Work Experience and Earnings in 1975 by State and Area, (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, October 1979), passim.

Many women today, however, prefer part-time to full-time work in order to accommodate home responsibilities. When most of the female labor force consisted of women without small children, the need for part-time work as a compromise arose less often. As popular acceptance of combining a career and family has grown, however, the number of women attracted to part-time job opportunities has increased. Hence one of the consequences of the rapid increase in the number of working mothers of small children has been an increase in the proportion of women voluntarily engaged in part-time work.

The propensity of women to work part-time is related to marital status and the presence and age of children. A higher proportion of employed married women than of employed divorced, separated, and widowed women work part-time. Among employed married women, those with children under age eighteen are most likely to work part-time. The reverse is true among the divorced, separated, and widowed. The proportion of all employed women working part-time has increased for most groups since 1967, but this increase may partly reflect the rise in involuntary part-time employment mentioned earlier.

Statistics show that the rapid growth of the part-time work force since the mid-1960's is largely the result of an increase in labor force participation among the group most likely to work part-time, that is, married mothers.

Over the past 15 years, the number of workers on voluntary part-time schedules increased nearly three times as rapidly as the number of full-time workers. Most of the increase in part-time employment was among women. Currently women hold nearly 70 percent of the part-time jobs on a national basis. 7/

7/ Ralph E. Smith, The Subtle Revolution - Women At Work, (The Urban Institute 1979), pp. 80-83, passim.

NONTRADITIONAL JOBS

In 1973, women represented apprenticeship registrants by only seven-tenths of a percent nationally. Just ten years ago, in fact, women were employed in Apprenticeships in only three of more than 38 skilled trades. Presently women are employed in all but a few of the apprenticeable jobs. Opportunities are now available in such nontraditional jobs as Mechanics, Electronic Technicians and Carpenters.

As of March 26, 1980, the latest figures available, there was a total of 2,344 persons registered in apprenticeship programs in the District of Columbia. Of that total, 108 were women. There were 41 Women Carpenters, 12 Printing Press Operators, 6 Electricians, 8 Painters, as well as others employed in a variety of apprenticeable jobs. Nationally, there were almost 9,000 women registered in apprenticeship programs at the beginning of 1979--an increase of 52 percent over the year before. Although women comprised only 4 percent of that total, it represents a significant increase from the 2.2 percent for the previous year.

One of the problems facing the Women's movement in nontraditional occupational roles, has been and still is sex discrimination. Fortunately, the law now forbids an employer to ask for sex preferences, or to list a job which includes a "male/female" preference. As a result of the changing employment climate, which is aided by limited enforcement of the law, women are now getting more opportunities to prove themselves in nontraditional roles.

During World War II, women took over many of the uncharacteristic occupations. They became Welders...they became Electrical workers and Machinists... and they became Heavy Equipment Operators, to mention just a few "non-women" jobs. Women in nontraditional roles were depicted both on posters and in the movies in the War years.

One of the best ways to gain entry to the trades is through the apprenticeship program, a system of paid employment combining supervised on-the-job training with related classroom instruction. Usually, the apprenticeship requires 3 or 4 years, and begins with wages somewhere in the neighborhood of about 50 percent of that of an experienced worker, with periodic increases throughout the training period. These apprenticeship programs--sometimes referred to as "plums"--are, for the most part, voluntary, and involves an agreement between a worker, an employer and, often a labor organization.

WIDER OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN (WOW)

In 1964, a nonprofit tax exempt organization was established to pioneer ways to gain equal employment opportunities for women. The organization named Wider Opportunities for Women (WOW) wo[illegible]ith government, unions, and private industry encouraging them to emplo[illegible]e women. It is one of the few organizations in the country working to open up new "nontraditional" opportunities for women in technological fields. WOW works with...

- Women entering or returning to the job market
- Women seeking nontraditional jobs
- Career Changers
- Upwardly mobile career women
- Disadvantaged women
- High School and college students
- Female heads of families
- Ex-Offenders
- Other women's employment groups throughout the country.

With funds from the Department of Employment Services and substantial support from a consortium of major industries and unions, the local chapters of WOW operate a model program to prepare economically disadvantaged women for well-paid entry-level jobs as electricians, carpenters, electronics technicians, auto mechanics and service and repair technicians.

WOMEN IN BUSINESS: STILL A WAY TO GO

(The Forbidden Fruit)

Back in the days of the Garden of Eden, it was Eve who bit the apple first. But that wasn't where she went wrong. Her big mistake was in giving Adam a taste of that forbidden fruit from the tree of knowledge and power. Adam liked it so much that he wouldn't give it back, and men have been chomping away on it ever since.

The myths of power have grown up out of a world where men hold the reins. They serve the purpose of maintaining power in the hands that hold it. There is no more substance to the myth that business ownership is a man's world than there was to the bogeyman that kept you in line as a kid. When you got old enough, you realized there was no bogeyman to be scared of. The same goes for the myths of power.

As Denise Cavanaugh, first President of the National Association of Women Business Owners, reports: "Owning your own business means being willing to take responsibility and not feeling that it's an extraordinary step to take." As Gloria Steinem, Journalist and Feminist Leader stated "The first step is believing in ourselves, understanding that we are indeed smart, even if we aren't rich. And the second is giving up the myths of power..." Back in the sixth century B.C., Lao-Tzu wrote, "The journey of a thousand miles must begin with a single step." 8/

Women in Banking is one of those thousand mile journeys. Following is an excerpt from the Washington Post's June 10th Business Section on "Women in Business: Still A Way To Go."

8/ Claudia Jessup and Genie Chipps, The Woman's Guide To Starting A Business:, (Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976), pp. 3-6, passim.

Women in Business: Still A Way to Go

By Martha M. Hamilton
Washington Post Staff Writer

See if you can figure out what's wrong in these examples:

• An enclosure in a package of materials for a Virginia bankers' convention that begins, "Mr. Banker . . . Do not open . . . Please take it to your wife."

• An association convention schedule that sets men's tennis tournaments for after-work sessions but schedules women's events during the work sessions.

• A speaker who loosens up a local business audience with a long stream of naked-lady jokes.

• A conversation with a woman at a convention that begins with asking who her husband is.

If you guessed that the examples suggest women have no place at area business associations as working business executives, you are correct—and several steps ahead of some of the people who arrange and attend local meetings.

While you might not expect to find the cutting edge of the movement for equal rights for women at these annual meetings, you reasonably might expect more acknowledgement of the fact that women are a growing part of the business community.

The examples — gathered by observers from a number of recent area business events—aren't the worst blows ever delivered to working women. Nor is the question of equal rights at annual business meetings—where the hardest job may be setting up the tennis tournament — the most pressing issue facing women. The examples also are not meant to suggest that sex discrimination is rampant in the Washington business community or confined to it.

In fact, one of the worst examples to surface from a series of recent meetings was a Texas banking consultant who demonstrated a talk about whether the recession would be V-shaped or U-shaped with a photo of cleavage.

Washington-area business women generally don't complain of slights or a lack of acceptance among their male peers. "I have been very well accepted by the banking community in D.C.," said Emily Womach of Women's National Bank of D.C. "All the banking organizations that I belong to have been very helpful."

Eve Grover of First Women's Bank of Maryland attended the

See COMMERCE, B2, Col. 2

CAPITAL COMMERCE

Women: a Way to Go

COMMERCE, From B1

Maryland Bankers Association meeting in Bermuda recently with her husband. "We were inundated with invitations," she said. "I did not find they viewed me any differently than any other men.

Somehow I really felt a part of it," she said.

"Of course men do have their little private circles, and as a woman I have to more or less include myself into that," she added.

Grover said she belives her presence at these meetings over the years may have made male colleagues more careful about not giving offense. About three years ago, she recalled, when she attended a banking conference in Phoenix, a hotel maitre d' tried to keep her and another woman out of the bankers' breakfast meeting because they were women.

The issue of how women are treated at business conventions is probably most pertinent to women who attend as business officials. But it is important to wives of businessmen as well. There are wives who object to being identified on name tags as Mrs. John Banker. And there are wives who would rather listen to economic forecasts than attend a tea party or fashion show.

At the International Monetary Conference in New Orleans last week, for instance, bankers' wives —including Kathryn Wriston, wife of the chairman of Citibank, and Helen Vogel, wife of the chairman of the National Bank of North America— lobbied for admittance to business sessions and won.

Clearly things have improved substantially over the years, but the examples suggest that when the boys are off on these outings relaxing, they should remember that some of them are girls. 5/

9/ Women in Business: Still A Way to Go, (The Washington Post), June 10, 1980.

SUMMARY

One of the most striking changes in the lifestyle of this Nation has been the inexorable increase of working women, single and married. The terms "nuclear power," "manpower," and most recently "black power" have now become a part of the National vocabulary. In the next decade, a new type of power called "women power" may be added. The women's movement into the labor force started in 1947 at the end of World War II. Today, one half of the women 16 years of age and over are there. Nearly all of the major groupings under labor force chiefly employment, unemployment, and the unemployment rate have experienced the impact of the women's movement. This influx is being experienced in the District of Columbia, the Washington Metropolitan Area, and the United States. The reasons for this rapid increase in labor force participation by women are extensive and widespread. There now exists the need of a dual family income, and more and more women are rapidly becoming heads of households. In spite of the fact that women hold 2 out of 5 jobs in the civilian labor force nationally, women are still employed in basically stereotype jobs in service and clerical occupations. As the work world becomes more sophisticated in its acceptance of women workers, a large percentage of women will be moving into nontraditional jobs--chiefly in the trades, and highly professional and managerial positions. Part-time employment is highest among working mothers. Nonwhite women experience the most difficulty in obtaining respectable jobs and salaries. There exists a huge gap between earnings of males and females.

In 1979, the U.S. Department of Labor contracted with The Urban Institute to prepare a study on "Women in the Labor Force in 1990." One of the major findings and implications of this study was that by 1990 about 55 percent of the female population aged sixteen and over are expected to be in the labor force, an increase of more than fifteen percentage points from the figures of 1978. This particular trend combined with the anticipated population growth, leads to a projection of 52 million women working or looking for work in 1990--11 million more than in 1978. Most of the net additions to the labor force will be women between the ages of twenty-five and fifty-four, most will be married and many will have young children. (See Table IX.)

No projections have been made for the District of Columbia and the Washington Metropolitan Area. However, based on the experiences of the past decade an increase of approximately 1.0 to 1.5 percent per year can be expected. An increase of approximately 12.5 percent can be expected for 1990.

TABLE IX

PROJECTIONS OF THE FEMALE LABOR FORCE IN 1990
United States

	Population			Labor Force			Participation Rate		
	Actual 1978 (March)	Projected 1990	Projected Change	Actual 1978 (March)	Projected 1990	Projected Change	Actual 1978 (March)	Projected 1990	Projected Change
	(thousands)			(thousands)			(percent)		
Total, ages 16 and Over	83,374	94,690	11,316	40,971	51,890	10,919	49.1	54.8	5.7
Ages 16-24	18,277	15,535	-2,742	10,580	10,420	-160	57.9	67.1	9.2
Ages 25-54	41,059	52,023	10,964	24,790	35,706	10,916	60.4	68.6	8.2
Ages 55 and Over	24,038	27,132	3,094	5,601	5,764	163	23.3	21.2	2.1
Total, ages 16-54	59,336	67,558	8,222	35,370	46,126	10,756	59.6	68.3	8.7
Never-Married	15,544	13,757	-1,787	9,763	9,464	-299	62.8	68.8	6.0
Married, husband present	35,802	44,390	8,588	19,842	29,600	9,758	55.4	66.7	11.3
No children under age 18	11,439	12,942	1,503	7,549	9,561	2,012	66.0	73.9	7.9
Children ages 6-17 only	13,231	17,859	4,628	7,661	12,520	4,859	57.9	70.1	12.2
Children under ages 6	11,132	13,589	2,457	4,633	7,519	2,886	41.6	55.3	13.7
Other ever-married	7,989	9,410	1,421	5,764	7,062	1,298	72.1	75.0	2.9
No children under age 18	3,433	3,740	307	2,639	3,063	424	76.9	81.9	5.0
Children ages 6-17 only	3,042	3,882	840	2,216	2,865	649	72.8	73.8	1.0
Children under age 6	1,515	1,788	273	908	1,134	226	60.0	63.4	3.4

Source: Ralph E. Smith, The Subtle Revolution - Women At Work, (The Urban Institute 1979), pp. 14-15.

LABOR MARKET INFORMATION
DEFINITIONS AND TERMINOLOGY

Civilian Labor Force - Comprises the total of all civilians classified as employed or unemployed (persons who made specific efforts to find a job during the last 52 weeks).

Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate - is the ratio of the civilian labor force to the civilian noninstitutional population. Participation rates are usually published by sex-age groups and often cross-classified by other demographic characteristics.

Labor Market Area - a geographic unit consisting of a central city or cities and the surrounding territory in which there is a concentration of economic activity and workers can readily change jobs without changing their place of residence. Labor market areas usually coincide with county boundaries.

Not in the Labor Force - includes all civilians 16 years old and over who are not classified as employed or unemployed.

Placement - is the hiring by an employer of an individual referred by the employment office for a job or an interview, providing that the employment office completed all the following steps:

(a) made prior arrangement for the referral.
(b) referred an individual not specifically designated.
(c) reliably verified preferably by the employer.
(d) prepared a job order form prior to referral.

Washington Metropolitan Area - includes the District of Columbia and three Maryland Counties (Charles, Montgomery, and Prince Georges), four Virginia counties (Arlington, Fairfax, Loundoun, and Prince William) and five independent Virginia Cities (Alexandria, Fairfax, Falls Church, Manassas, and Manassas Park).

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